

BAR-MULTIPLIER AND ITS GENERALIZATION

TECHNICAL DOCUMENTARY REPORT NO. ESD-TDR-64-172

S. Okada

December 1965

Prepared for

DIRECTORATE OF COMPUTERS
ELECTRONIC SYSTEMS DIVISION
AIR FORCE SYSTEMS COMMAND
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE

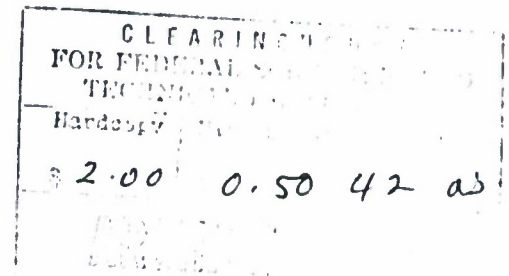
L. G. Hanscom Field, Bedford, Massachusetts



Project 707.0

Prepared by

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Bedford, Massachusetts
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ABSTRACT

A new and simple device, similar to an abacus, was invented by a Chinese mathematician; it is used for multiplication, division, and extracting square roots. The underlying idea is abstracted and generalized for possible application to contemporary computers in order to reduce computing time.

REVIEW AND APPROVAL

This technical documentary report has been reviewed and is approved.


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The author is further indebted to Mr. Terzian for suggesting the method for the solution of the binary case illustrated in Figure 11.

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SECTION I

INTRODUCTION

A very simple device was recently invented in China for effecting numerical multiplication, division, and extracting square roots, all without the use of the multiplication table.

According to a popular journal [Reference -cm] from which this information was obtained, the inventor, the mathematician YU Chan-Hsan, was originally a carpenter and later a clerk in a stationary store. A movie of his biography was produced because his invention is comparable only to that of the abacus. His bar-multiplier is to the process of multiplication what the abacus is to addition, and just as the abacus is universally used in China, YU's bar-multiplier in the combined form with the abacus is also becoming part of the standard tools of his country. Because it is so simple and easy to learn, it is now taught at almost all grammar schools of Mainland China.

"Napier's Bones," invented by John Napier (1550-1617), originator of numerical calculation by the logarithm, are basically identical with the method of Figure 1 [References -EB:cm, N-WM1, 461]. The new Chinese method differs from it in

	A = 1 4 2 3					
	X B = 8 3 2					
	<hr/>					
	2 8 4 6					
A _i B _j	3 12 6 9					
	+ 8 32 16 24					
	<hr/>					
	Q _t 8 35 30 38 13 6					
	<hr/>					
	3 5 3 8 6					
	<hr/>					
	8 3 0 1 3					
	<hr/>					
P = 1	1	8	3	9	3	6

Figure 1 An Example of Multiplication

the use of the bars instead of the numerals and in combining the bar-multiplier with the abacus as the "bar-bead calculator." It converts the arithmetic operations into discrete, purely geometric operations on points and lines such as embodying lines, by determining intersections in the bar part and linear displacement of beads in the abacus part.

This document explains YU's bar-calculator as a prototype of the new idea, and then generalizes it to the multiplication of many numbers so the numerical computation of the N -th root becomes simple and fast.

Application of the basic principle of the prototype gives a possibility of reducing computing time with some increase in computing elements. For the generalized ease, further reduction is possible by a further increase of the computing elements. The key lies in the separation of the pure multiplying operation of individual digits from the carrying-over process, which can be performed in the subsequent adding step.

When an equation is valid only for the multiplication of $N = 2$ or 3 digits, namely AB or ABC , it is shown by adding the denominator N to the number of the equation which is valid for the general value N . Variables are indicated by lower-case letters; constants are indicated by capital letters. All lower-case letter indices are variable and all upper-case letter indices are fixed.

From the standpoint of modern abstract algebra, if the ordinary carried-over product P is substituted by the "quasi-decimal," "quasi-binary" or any "quasi" digital expression Q of the product defined below by withholding the carryover process, a lucid isomorphism between the digital numbers of any single base and the functions of a single variable is revealed.

As a whole, this paper means the realization of direct isomorphic mapping of the arithmetic operations on numbers into discrete affine geometric operations such as meet or join on points, lines, planes, or hyperplanes by means of the logical electric circuits.

Though some literature [C-GN, F-SZ, H-MGN, L-DG, M-GZ] on the "geometry of numbers" already exists, none includes the geometrical method

of multiplying digital numbers by discrete models, which also seems to deserve the term "geometry of numbers." Closely related problems are discussed in computer design, but without geometric interpretation [R-ADC].

The generalization is easily obtained by considering the diagonal hyperplanes expressed by the covectors in the N-dimensional affine space. Though the following explanation is given mostly on the decimal case, the result is valid for any base, and would be particularly advantageous in the binary system.

SECTION II

PRINCIPLE OF THE BAR-MULTIPLIER

For the multiplication of two numbers:

$$n = A, B \quad 1/2$$

$$P = AB \quad 2/2$$

where

$$P = P_S 10^S + \dots + P_s 10^s + \dots + P_O, \quad P_S \neq 0, \quad P_s < 10, \quad 3$$

$$s = 0, 1, \dots, S; \quad 4$$

$$A = A_I 10^I + \dots + A_i 10^i + \dots + A_O, \quad A_I \neq 0, \quad A_i < 10, \quad 5.1$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, I; \quad 6.1$$

$$B = B_J 10^J + \dots + B_j 10^j + \dots + B_O, \quad B_J \neq 0, \quad B_j < 10, \quad 5.2$$

$$j = 0, 1, \dots, J; \quad 6.2$$

if the products $A_i B_j$ for all pairs of digits A_i and B_j are written down, deferring the carry-over from $A_i B_j$ to $A_{i+1} B_j$; e. g., 1 of $A_2 B_1 = 4.3 = 12$ of Figures 1 and 2 to $A_3 B_1 = 1.3 = 3$ into the final adding step, the multiplying process will change to the form shown in Figures 1 and 2.

In the binary system there is no carry-over in the partial product AB_j . In Figure 1, the two-digit number of the sum of each column are vertically staggered with underlines for the convenience of the succeeding carry-over step. Thus, the products of the type $A_i B_j$ are perfectly separated from each other, and are mutually independent in logic. By this separation, the geometrical location of the factors A_i and B_j in Figure 2 becomes very simple: all B_O appear in the first row of the

			A_3	A_2	A_1	A_0
				B_2	B_1	B_0
	X					
			$A_3 B_0$	$A_2 B_0$	$A_1 B_0$	$A_0 B_0$
		$A_3 B_1$	$A_2 B_1$	$A_1 B_1$	$A_0 B_1$	
+	$A_3 B_2$	$A_2 B_2$	$A_1 B_2$	$A_0 B_2$		
	Q_5	Q_4	Q_3	Q_2	Q_1	Q_0
	$P = P_6$	P_5	P_4	P_3	P_2	P_1
						P_0

Figure 2 The General Case

uncarried partial product and all A_0 appear in the first right skew line. Therefore, as shown in Figure 3, if two lines are drawn horizontally through the positions of all B_0 and three skew lines are drawn through the positions of A_0 , then the number of the cross-points of these lines at the intersection corresponding to $A_0 B_0$ is exactly $A_0 B_0 = 2.3 = 6$. Thus, if all numerals A_i and B_j are substituted by lines as shown in Figure 3, the number of the cross-points at all of

$$M_2 = (I + 1) (J + 1) = 4.3 = 12 \quad 7/2$$

intersections gives the values of the products $A_i B_j$.

If both are D digits:

$$I + 1 = J + 1 = D, \quad 8/2$$

then,

$$M_2 = D^2. \quad 9/2$$

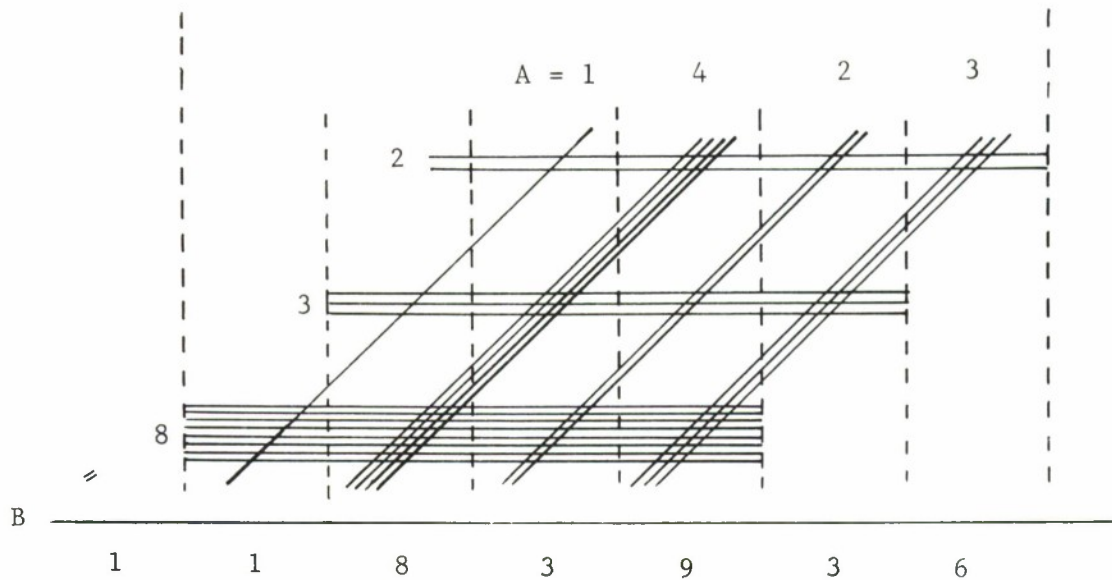


Figure 3 Bar-Multiplier

Because A and B are commutative, by inclining the lines of B_j as shown in Figure 4, A and B are brought into symmetry. If the bar-multiplier is combined with a Japanese abacus (which has only five beads for each digit—one upper bead expressing five and four lower beads expressing unity), the number of bars for each digit can be similarly reduced to five.

Further, instead of removable bars, flat bars can be installed which can be turned a certain angle by small staggered levers so that each digit can be expressed by an angular flipping of these bars. Now based on Figure 4, the principle of the "bar-multiplier" is stated as follows:

If two numbers A and B, e. g. , 1423 and 832, are to be multiplied, place or draw one, four, two and three parallel inclined bars from the left lower position to the upper right, and eight, three, and two inclined bars from the left upper position to the right lower as shown in Figure 4 then add the number of the cross-points along the vertical columns with carry over, to obtain the product P, e. g. , 1183936.

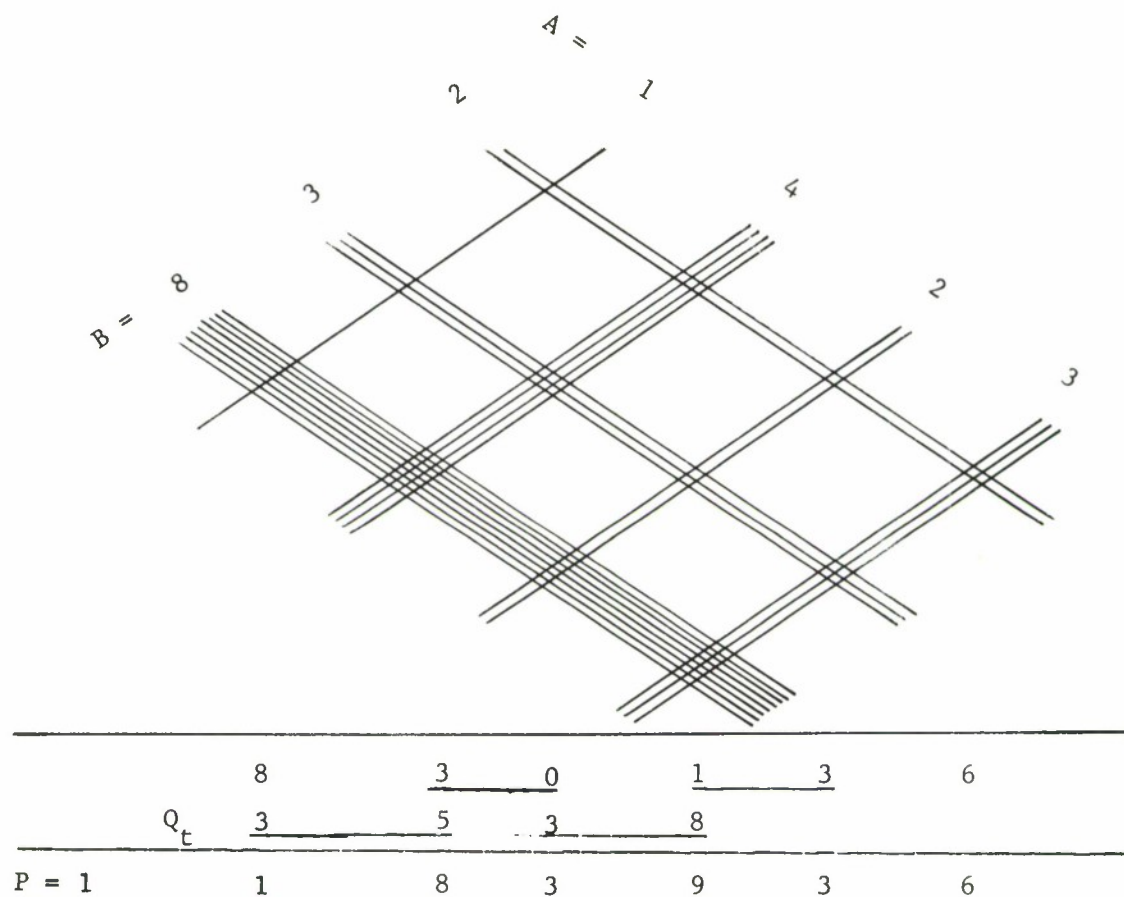


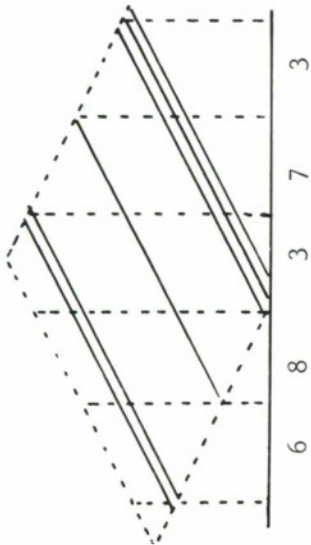
Figure 4 Bar-Multiplier in Symmetric Form

If $P = 1183936$ and $A = 1423$ are given, B can be determined by subtracting the cross-points generated by the maximum digits B_j . Thus division is possible as exemplified for $68373 \div 273$ in Figure 5. Similarly, square and square root can be performed by this bar-multiplier as exemplified for 213^2 in Figure 6 and for $45369^{1/2}$ in Figure 7.

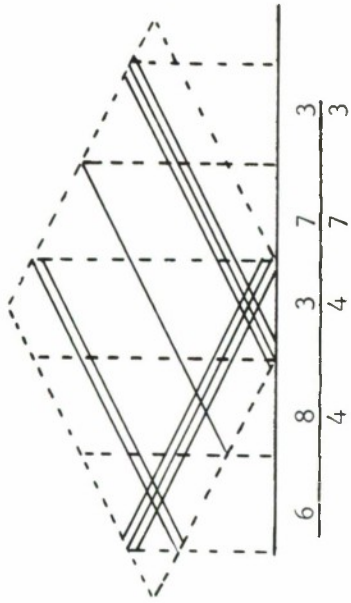
2P PROOF

In the products $A_i B_j 10^{i+j}$, at first the sum $Q_t 10^t$ of all the terms of power t (see Figures 1 and 2) is defined by

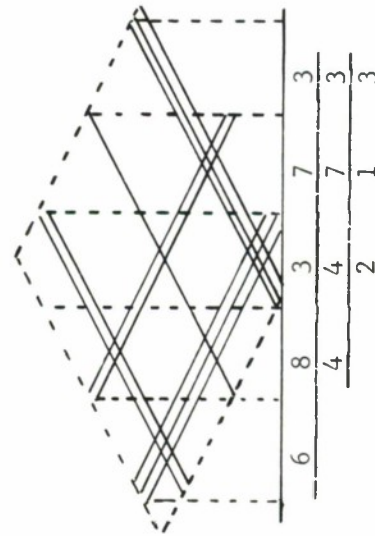
$$Q_t = \sum_{i,j} R_{ij}, \quad 10/2$$



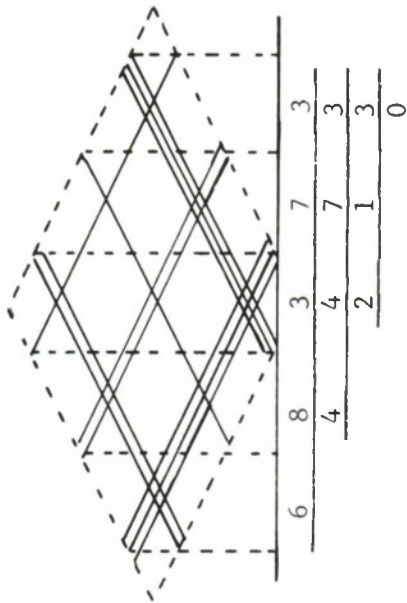
Step 1



Step 2



Step 3



Step 4

Figure 5 Dividing 68373 by 213

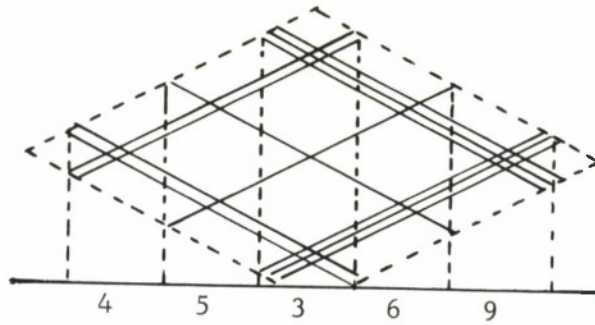


Figure 6 Squaring 213

$$R_{ij} = A_i B_j \quad 11/2$$

over all values of i and j of

$$6.1, 6.2: \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, I; j = 0, 1, \dots, J;$$

satisfying

$$i + j = t, \quad 12/2$$

$$t = 0, 1, \dots, T; \quad 13$$

$$T = I + J. \quad 14/2$$

Q is defined as the sum of all $Q_t 10^t$:

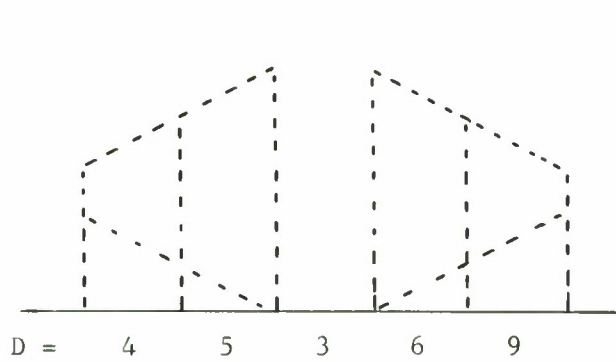
$$Q = Q_T 10^T + \dots + Q_t 10^t + \dots + Q_0. \quad 15$$

Though Q is equal to the product P :

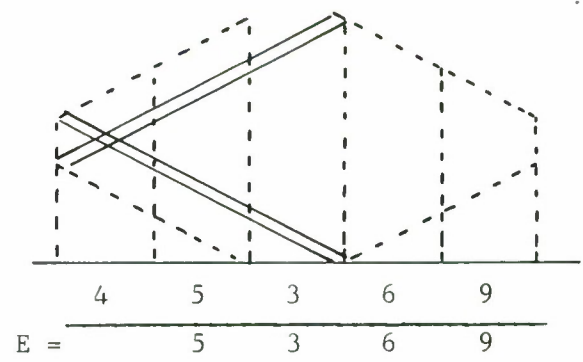
$$Q = P, \quad 16$$

Q_t may generally be not only larger than ten:

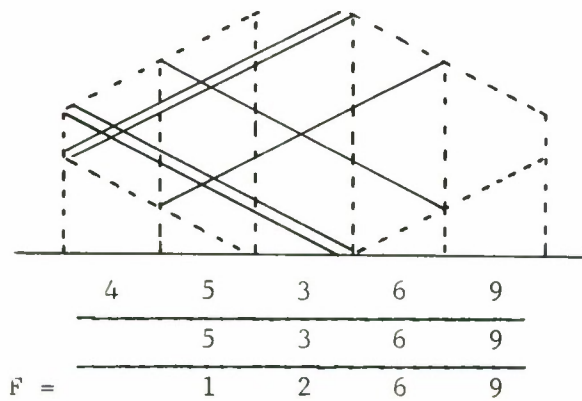
$$Q_t \begin{matrix} < \\ \equiv \\ > \end{matrix} 10 \quad 17$$



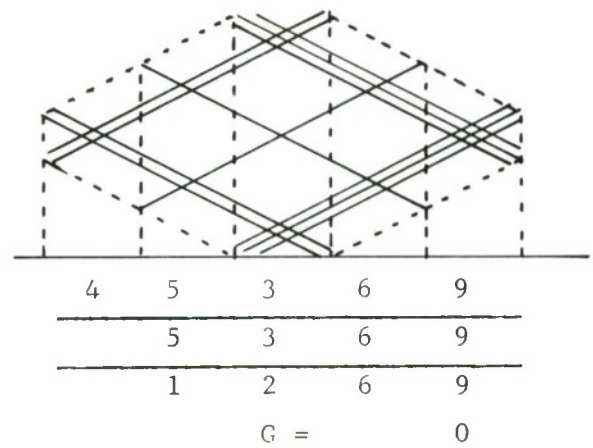
Step 1



Step 2



Step 3



Step 4

Figure 7 Square Root of 45369

as seen in the example of Figure 1, but it may consist of three or more digits. Hence, Q will be called the "quasi-decimal" expression of the product. Now, on the plane of the paper of Figure 4, if one introduces an affine frame (see the end of this paragraph) having the bases

$$\vec{a}_1 = \vec{0A}_1, \vec{a}_2 = \vec{0A}_2 \quad a^{-1/2}$$

where the origin 0 is at the point R_{00} , the first base point A_1 is at the point R_{10} , the second base point A_2 is at the point R_{01} (as shown in Figure 8), then a linear equation

$$w_1 x^1 + w_2 x^2 = 1 \quad \text{a-2/2}$$

on the components of a vector \vec{x} where

$$\vec{x} = x^1 \vec{a}_1 + x^2 \vec{a}_2 \quad \text{a-3/2}$$

expresses a straight line intersecting with 1-axis at $1/w_1$ and 2-axis at $1/w_2$ and

$$w_1 x^1 + w_2 x^2 = t; t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad \text{a-4/2}$$

express straight line in parallel to that of equation a-2/2 with the intercepts t/w_1 and t/w_2 on 1-axis and 2-axis. w_1 and w_2 are covariant referring to x^n ($n = 1, 2$) and called the components of a covector \vec{w} :

$$\vec{w} = w_1 \vec{a}^1 + w_2 \vec{a}^2 \quad \text{a-5/2}$$

where

$$\vec{a}^1 = \vec{0A}^1 \quad \text{a-6.1/2}$$

is the base covector expressed by a pair of an initial straight line 0 passing through the origin and a terminal straight line A^2 passing through the base point A_1 , both in parallel to 2-axis.

Thus,

$$\vec{a}^2 = \vec{0A}^2 \quad \text{a-6.2/2}$$

is the base covector expressed by a pair of an initial straight line 0 passing through the origin and a terminal straight line A^2 passing through the base point A_2 , both in parallel to 1-axis. These base covectors \vec{a}^1 and \vec{a}^2 are contravariant as expressed by their superscript. If the components of the covector \vec{w} are both unity,

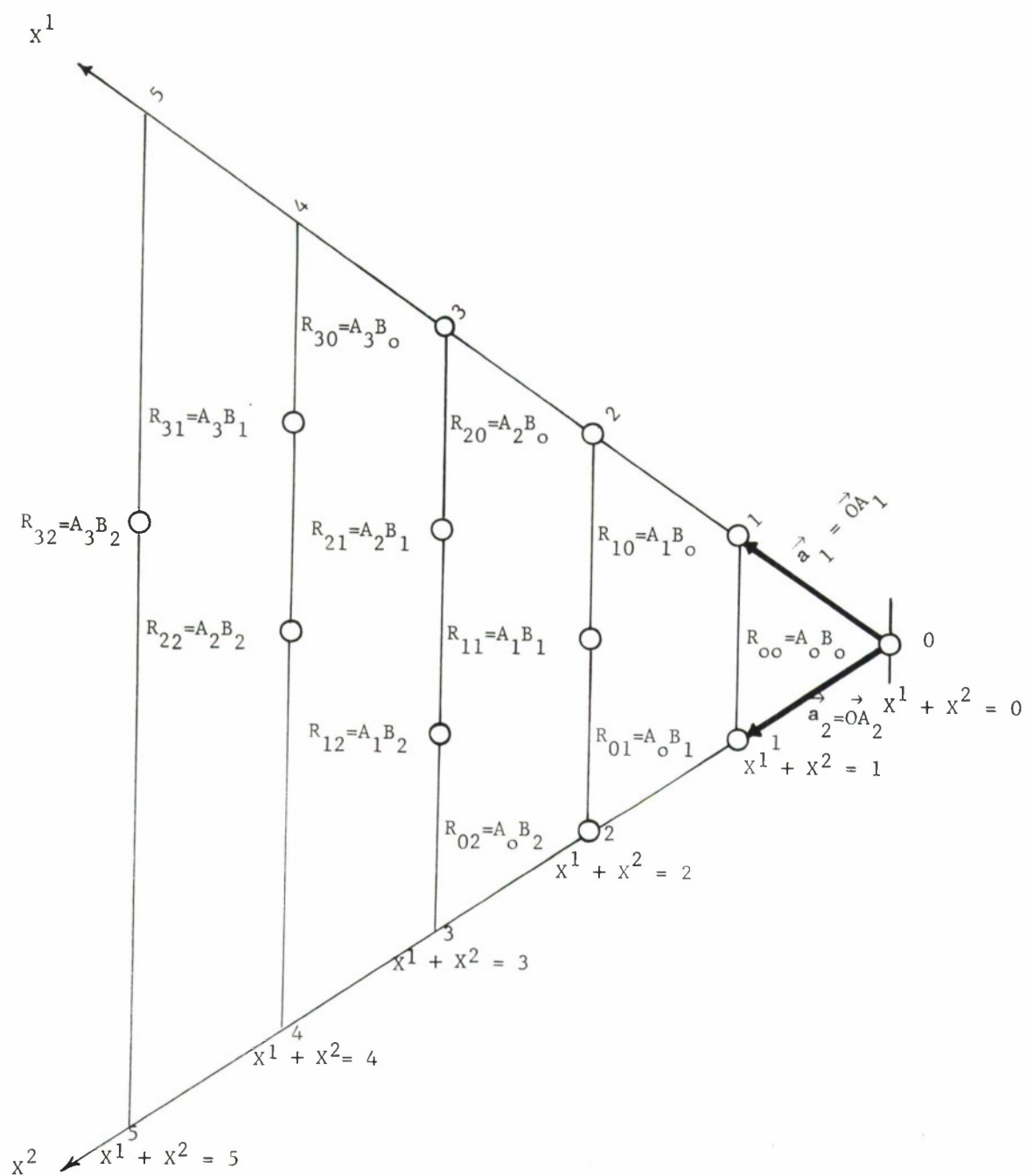


Figure 8 Affine Coordinates for Figure 4

$$(w_1, w_2) = (1, 1) , \quad a-7/2$$

the corresponding equation

$$x^1 + x^2 = 1 \quad a-8/2$$

expresses the straight line passing the base points A_1 and A_2 ; namely, a part, A_1A_2 , of it forms the diagonal of the base parallelopete. Similarly,

$$x^1 + x^2 = t , \quad t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad a-9/2$$

expresses the straight line passing the points $(t, 0)$ and $(0, t)$ in parallel to that of equation a-8/2.

By comparison of equations 12/2, 13, and a-9/2, we see that Q_t is the sum of the products R_{ij} lying on the diagonal lines of equation a-9/2 as seen in Figures 4 and 8.

Thus the validity of the above principle was proved by introducing the affine frame. If this affine frame is used, the above process can be stated as follows as the case 2 of the general case N described below:

1. Construct a two-dimensional affine frame;
2. Enter A_i to all points

$$x^2 = j , \quad j = 0, \dots, J \quad 18.1/2$$

on the line

$$x^1 = i , \quad i = 0, \dots, I ; \quad 19.1/2$$

3. Enter B_j to all points:

$$x^1 = i , \quad i = 0, \dots, I \quad 18.2/2$$

on the line

$$x^2 = j, \quad j = 0, \dots, J; \quad 19.2/2$$

4. By adding all products R_{ij} on the diagonal lines

$$a-9/2: \quad x^1 + x^2 = t, \quad 13: \quad t = 0, \dots, T; \quad 14/2: \quad T = I + J \quad 20/2$$

Q_t and hence Q are obtained;

5. By carrying, P is obtained from Q .

A note on the "affine" space [see W-STM, S-RC 1, Wh-GI 349-53, G-LA 250, A-GA 66]: If different lengths are used for units of different axes of an oblique coordinate system in N-dimensional Euclidean space, namely a "heterometric" oblique frame is used, the frame can be called the "affine" frame without loss of generality. The unit of length of any direction other than those of the axes is not defined and is perfectly arbitrary. The inner (or dot) product is defined only for a vector $\vec{v} = \vec{0V}$ and a covector $\underline{w} = \underline{0W}$ where $\underline{0W}$ means a pair of initial and terminal hyperplanes in parallel, with intercepts $1/w_n$ on n-axis ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) (straight lines for $N = 2$, planes for $N = 3$). When the origin is fixed, the initial hyperplane passing through the origin is often omitted. The value of the inner product expresses the ratio of the length $0V$ to the intercept $0W$ of the vector $\vec{v} = \vec{0V}$ by the covector \underline{w} , where W means the intersection of $0V$ or its extension with the terminal hyperplane of the covector \underline{w} [S-RC8-9]:

$$\vec{v} \cdot \underline{w} = v^1 w_1 + \dots + v^N w_N = v^n w_n = 0V:0W. \quad a-10$$

When the vector \vec{v} is in parallel with the hyperplane, namely, both 0 and V are in the initial hyperplane, this product becomes zero, which is the case of $t = 0$ in equation a-4/2. When the intersecting point W is on the extension of $\vec{V0} = -\vec{v}$ beyond the origin 0 , the product becomes negative.

Hence, the equation

$$w_n x^n = w_1 x^1 + \dots + w_N x^N = 1 \quad a-2$$

expresses a hyperplane passing the point $1/w_n$ of the n -th axis, and x^n satisfying

$$w_n x^n = t ; t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad \text{a-4}$$

expresses a hyperplane passing through the point t/w_n of n -th axis, in parallel to that of a-2. If all of w_n were unity:

$$w_n = 1, n = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad \text{a-7}$$

the resulting equation

$$x^1 + x^2 + \dots + x^N = 1 \quad \text{a-8}$$

expresses a diagonal hyperplane passing through all base points A_1, A_2, \dots, A_N and

$$x^1 + x^2 + \dots + x^N = t, t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad \text{a-9}$$

expresses diagonal hyperplanes intersecting with n -axis at the length t hence in parallel to that of a-8.

If the base vectors are expressed as

$$\vec{a}_n = \vec{OA}_n, n = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad \text{a-1}$$

base covectors as

$$\vec{a}^n = \vec{OA}^n, \quad \text{a-6}$$

then there holds

$$\vec{a}_n \vec{a}^m = 1_n^m, m, n = 1, 2, \dots, N \quad \text{a-11}$$

where 1_n^m means the unit matrix if the left hand side $\vec{a}_n \vec{a}^m$ is regarded as a matrix. As an equation in the index notation, 1_n^m is identical with the Kronecker symbol. Unless an orthonormal frame is defined or a covector \vec{w} is substituted

by a vector \vec{w} under a certain geometric correspondence, an "inner product between two vectors" and hence also an "angle" are not defined and the Pythagorean theorem is not applicable. If only the affine frames are used, the space is called the "affine space."

Since an "N-dimensional space" for any natural number N is none other than a set of points and substantially means that any combination of the numerical value of N variables is mapped to a single point in this set, any N-space and N-geometric object can be drawn on paper as the projected figure of the N-dimensional figure into the two-dimensional space in exactly the same way as practiced in the graphics and descriptive geometry. Especially, if the geometric figures are discrete, this projected realization in 2-space can be proper two-dimensional figures.

N-space ($N > 3$) is already often used among engineers [A-gemsf, H-gs 172, 183-98]. Physical realization of N-space by means of electric networks was explained in 1940 by L. Gutenmacher in G-kmuk [see also K-NG, S-MG-1, -2, S-NG, C-RP 141, etc.].

SECTION III

MULTIPLICATION OF THREE NUMBERS

The geometrical arrangement of this case is exemplified in Figure 9, but the carrying circuits in Figure 9 are for the binary case which is explained later. In case of

$$n = A, B, C \quad 1/3$$

$$P = ABC \quad 2/3$$

$$A = A_I 10^I + \dots + A_i 10^i + \dots + A_0, \quad A_I \neq 0, \quad A_i < 10 \quad 5.1$$

$$B = B_J 10^J + \dots + B_j 10^j + \dots + B_0, \quad B_J \neq 0, \quad B_j < 10 \quad 5.2$$

$$C = C_K 10^K + \dots + C_k 10^k + \dots + C_0, \quad C_K \neq 0, \quad C_k < 10. \quad 5.3$$

The product P is obtained by the carrying-over process from the quasi-decimal expression Q defined by equations 13 and 15 and from the following equation 14/3 and the sum

$$Q_t = \sum_{i,j,k} R_{ijk} \quad 10/3$$

$$t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad 13$$

$$T = I + J + K \quad 14/3$$

$$R_{ijk} = A_i B_j C_k \quad 11/3$$

over all the values of i , j , and k satisfying

$$i + j + k = t \quad 12/3$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, I \quad 6.1$$

$$j = 0, 1, \dots, J \quad 6.2$$

$$k = 0, 1, \dots, K. \quad 6.3$$

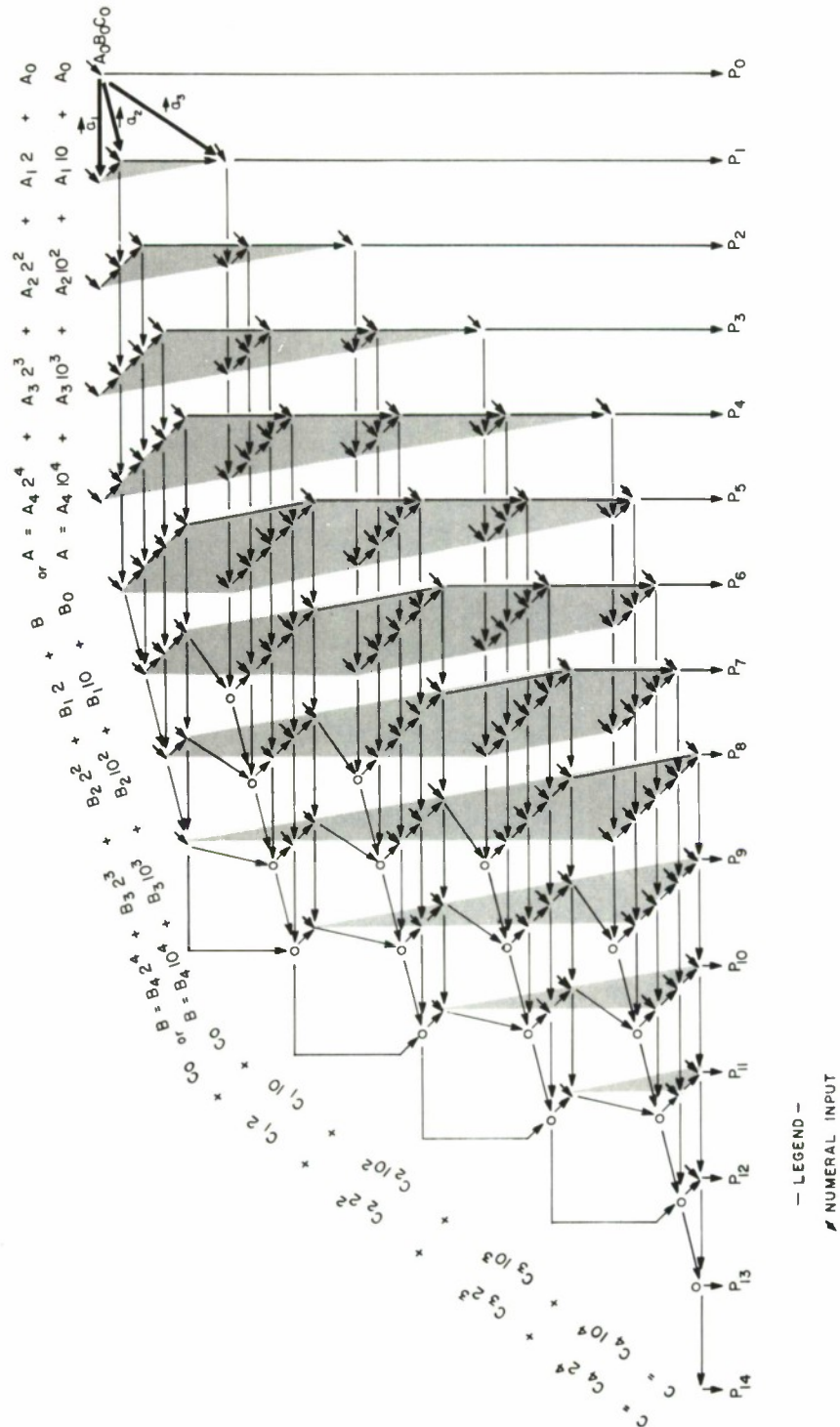


Figure 9. Multiplier of Three Numbers - A, B, and C

If any three-dimensional affine frame is constructed as shown in the three-dimensional Figure 9 and we

1. write down the value A_i at all points of the coordinates:

$$(x^2, x^3) = (j, k), (j = 0, 1, \dots, J; k = 0, 1, \dots, K) \quad 18.1/3$$

on the plane:

$$x^1 = i, (i = 0, 1, \dots, I) \quad 19.1/3$$

2. write down the value B_j at all points of the coordinates:

$$(x^1, x^3) = (i, k) (i = 0, 1, \dots, I; k = 0, 1, \dots, K) \quad 18.2/3$$

on the plane:

$$x^2 = j, (j = 0, 1, \dots, J) \quad 19.2/3$$

3. write down the value C_k at all points of the coordinates:

$$(x^1, x^2) = (i, j) (i = 0, 1, \dots, I; j = 0, 1, \dots, J) \quad 18.3/3$$

on the plane:

$$x^3 = k, (k = 0, 1, \dots, K) \quad 19.3/3$$

then

4. the summands of Q_t lie on the diagonal plane

$$a-9/3: \quad x^1 + x^2 + x^3 = t \quad 20/3$$

$$t = 0, 1, \dots, T; \quad 20/3$$

$$T = I + J + K$$

From these, the procedures for multiplication are established as follows:

1. Place A_i sheets of planes at

$$x^1 = i, \quad i = 0, 1, \dots, I \quad 21.1/3$$

in parallel to the plane

$$x^1 = 0 \quad 22.1/3$$

namely, the initial plane of a covector of components

$$(w_1, w_2, w_3) = (1, 0, 0) ; \quad 23.1/3$$

2. Place B_j sheets at

$$x^2 = j, \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, J \quad 21.2/3$$

in parallel to the plane

$$x^2 = 0 ; \quad 22.2/3$$

3. Place C_k sheets at

$$x^3 = k, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, K \quad 21.3/3$$

in parallel to the plane

$$x^3 = 0 . \quad 22.3/3$$

4. Add the number of intersection points of these sets of plane on the diagonal planes of equation 19/3 with carry from Q_t over to Q_{t+1} for $t < T$ and from Q_T to P_{T+1} or further to P_{T+2} etc. Then the product P is obtained. The total number of the product terms $A_i B_j C_k$ is given by

$$M_3 = (I + 1) (J + 1) (K + 1) . \quad 7/3$$

If all three numbers are of D digits:

$$I + 1 = J + 1 = K + 1 = D , \quad 8/3$$

then there holds

$$M_3 = D^3 . \quad 9/3$$

SECTION IV

MULTIPLICATION OF N NUMBERS

In case

$$n = A, B, \dots, N ; \quad 1$$

$$P = AB \dots n \dots N , \quad 2$$

$$n = n_{I^n} 10^{I^n} + \dots + n_{i^n} 10^{i^n} + \dots + n_0, \quad n_{I^n} \neq 0, \quad n_{i^n} < 10 \quad 5$$

$$i^n = 0, 1, \dots, I^n ; \quad n = A, B, \dots, N \quad 6$$

the quasi-decimal expression Q of equation 15 is defined by the sum Q_t :

$$Q_t = \sum_{i^A, \dots, i^n, \dots, i^N} R_{i^A \dots i^n \dots i^N} \quad 10$$

$$R_{i^A \dots i^n \dots i^N} = A_{i^A} \dots n_{i^n} \dots N_{i^N} \quad 11$$

over the values satisfying

$$i^A + \dots + i^n + \dots + i^N = t , \quad 12$$

$$t = 0, 1, \dots, T ; \quad 13$$

$$T = I^A + \dots + I^n + \dots + I^N \quad 14$$

1. If any N-dimensional affine frame:

$$\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \dots, \vec{a}_n, \dots, \vec{a}_N \quad a-1$$

is constructed, either electrically or in any other manner and

2. the value

$$n_{i^n} (n = A, B, \dots, N; i^n = 0, 1, \dots, I^n)$$

is entered at all points

$$(x^1, \dots, x^{n-1}, x^{n+1}, \dots, x^N) = (i^A, \dots, i^{n-1}, i^{n+1}, \dots, i^N) \quad 18$$

on the hyperplane

$$x^n = i^n, \quad 19$$

3. then by adding the products at first on the diagonal hyperplane defined by

$$a-4, a-7: \quad x_n x^n = t, \quad w_n = 1 \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots, N)$$

namely,

$$a-9: \quad x^1 + x^2 + \dots + x^n + \dots + x^N = t \quad 20$$

$$t = 0, 1, \dots, T \quad 20$$

$$14: \quad T = I^A + \dots + I^n + \dots + I^N \quad 20$$

Q_t is obtained and by adding these Q_t with carry over, the product P is obtained. Hence the rules of multiplication are:

1. Construct N -dimensional affine frame, where N is equal to the number of the factors A, B, \dots, N ;
2. Realize n_{i^n} ($i^n = 0, 1, \dots, I^n$; $n = A, B, \dots, N$) sheets of hyperplanes in parallel to the base covector \underline{a}^n ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) at

$$x^n = i^n (i^n = 0, 1, \dots, I^n); \quad 19.6$$

3. Q_t is obtained by adding the number of intersections of these sets of hyperplanes on the diagonal hyperplanes of equation 19;
4. The product P is obtained by adding these $Q_t 10^t$ with carry over.

If the requested maximum number of digits is D for all:

$$I^n + 1 = I + 1 = D \quad 8$$

$$T = NI = N(D - 1) \quad 24$$

by installing

$$M_N = D^N$$

elements of multiplying N numbers, all M multiplication of

$$R_{i^N} A_{i^N} \dots A_{i^1} n_{i^N} \dots n_{i^1} N_{i^N} = A_{i^N} A_{i^N} \dots n_{i^N} n_{i^N} \dots N_{i^N}; i^n = 0, 1, \dots, I$$

from

$$R_{00 \dots 0} = A_0 \dots n_0 \dots N_0$$

to

$$R_{II \dots I} = A_I \dots n_I \dots N_I$$

can be simultaneously done spending the same period to the above single multiplication.

For the addition of these products to Q_t of each t , instead of repeating the addition of two numbers if the combinational circuits of the so-called symmetric Boolean functions [C-SCLD236, HiG-LODEC 83, N-rc, Sh-sarsc] of Figure 10 are used, Q_t can be obtained in a single step independent of the number of its digits. Different t can be added simultaneously.

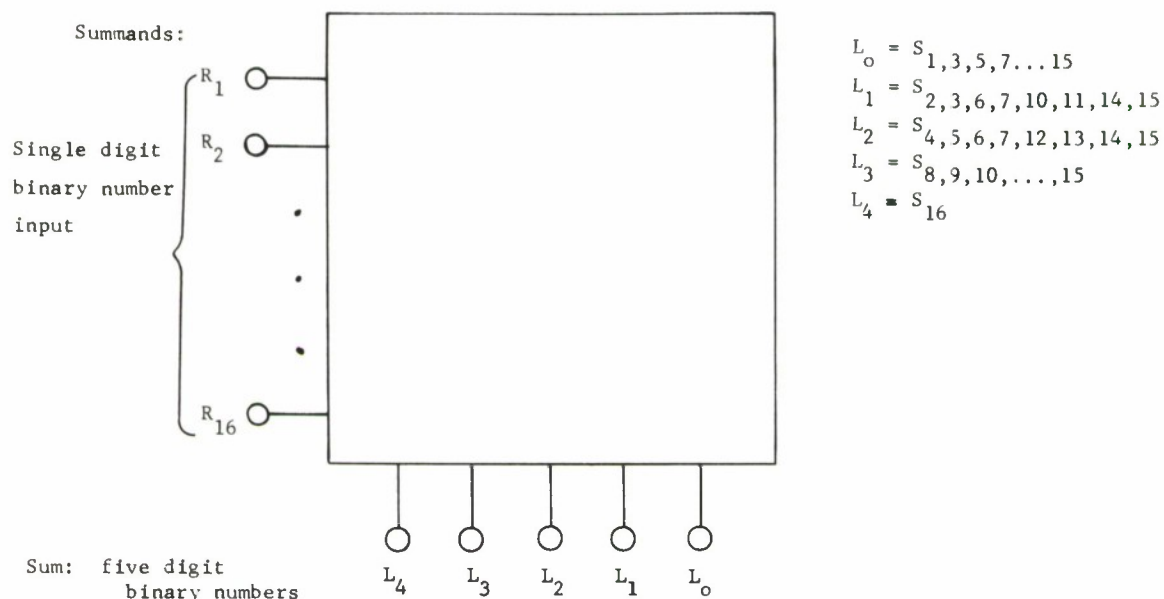


Figure 10 Combinatorial Adder

When the number of the summands are many, e. g. , 1024, by splitting these into 8 groups and then further splitting each group again into 8 subgroups, the addition is reduced to that of 16 numbers and two further addition of eight numbers. By such multiple-step splitting, the combinational circuits of the type of Figure 10 generally can be kept to a reasonable size.

Parallel operation of the addition in these $8 \times 8 = 64$ subgroups reduces the computing time. Series operation saves the adding components at some increase in computing time. Because the purpose of this paper is to describe the basic ideas, only a few remarks will be given on the practical realization.

At first, the error correcting and detecting facilities can be introduced by redundancy. In Figures 3 and 4, if nine conductors are installed instead of the bars, and magnetic cores are linked at all cross points, this can form a core matrix and the multiplication can be done in a single time unit by impressing the

pulses simultaneously on A_i and B_j . The conductors for each decimal digit can be reduced to five as explained after 2: equation 9/2. The decimal value of each product $A_i B_j$ can be obtained (without delay caused by the carrying process) by the use of the combinatorial circuits of the type shown in Figure 10 where each core of $9 \times 9 = 81$ or $5 \times 5 = 25$ forms the input. The addition of these to Q_t can be done again by the combinatorial circuits of type Figure 10 without carrying delay.

This can be generalized to the case N , where the magnetic cores link to the conductors of N -dimensional lattice circuit. The circuit of Figures 11, 12, and 13 is a combinatorial circuit whose output lines P_j will assume directly the values that represent the product of the input lines A and B in the binary expression, after a suitable logical delay for propagation of voltage levels through the matrix. For example:

$$P = A \times B = 10110 \times 01101 = 0100011110 , \quad 25/2$$

The highest power T of the quasi-binary product Q is

$$T = I + J = 4 + 4 = 8 ; \quad 26/2$$

hence by possible carry, the highest power S of the product P is

$$S = T + 1 = 9 , \quad 27/2$$

which decimally means

$$P = A \times B = 22 \times 18 = 286 \quad 28/2$$

$$T = I + J = 1 + 1 = 2, \quad S = T = 2 . \quad 29/2$$

In Figures 12 and 13 the boxes in general position have three inputs:

- i) the product, namely the output of AND gate of A_i and B_j :

$$R_{ij} = A_i B_j \quad 30/2$$

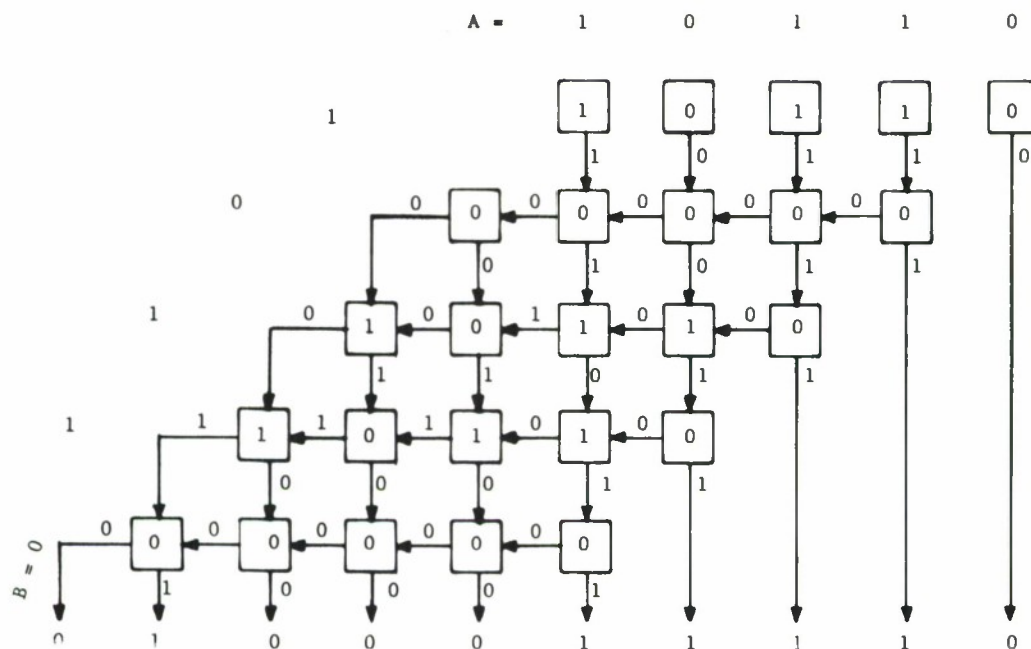


Figure II Multiplier of Two Binary Numbers

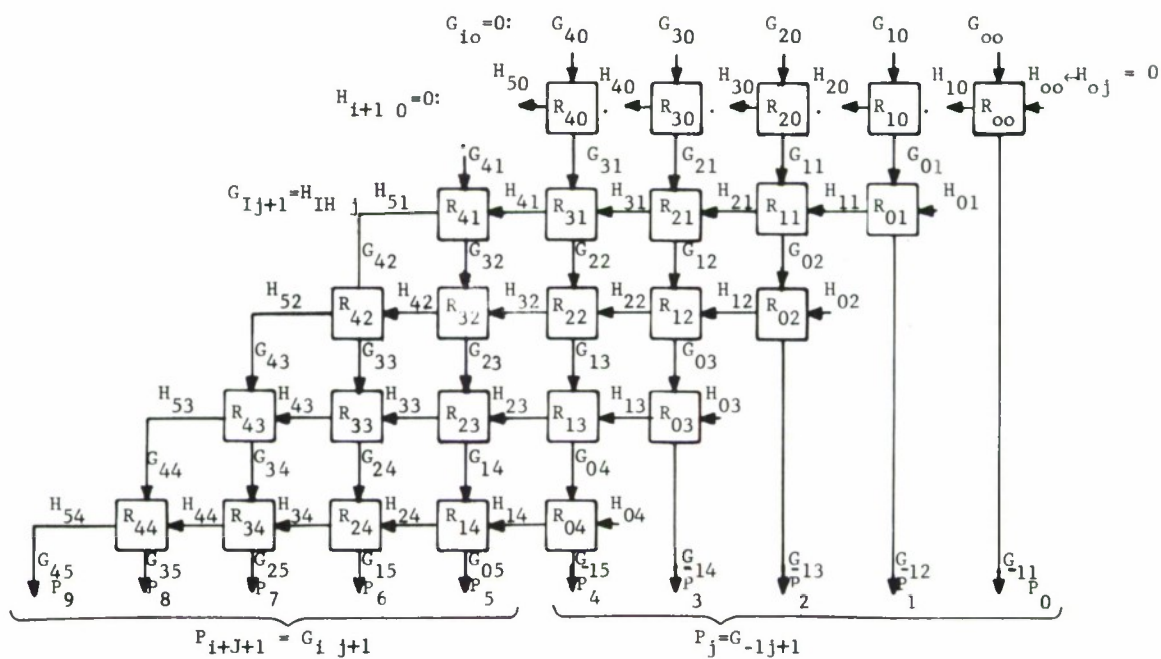


Figure 12 Circuit Construction

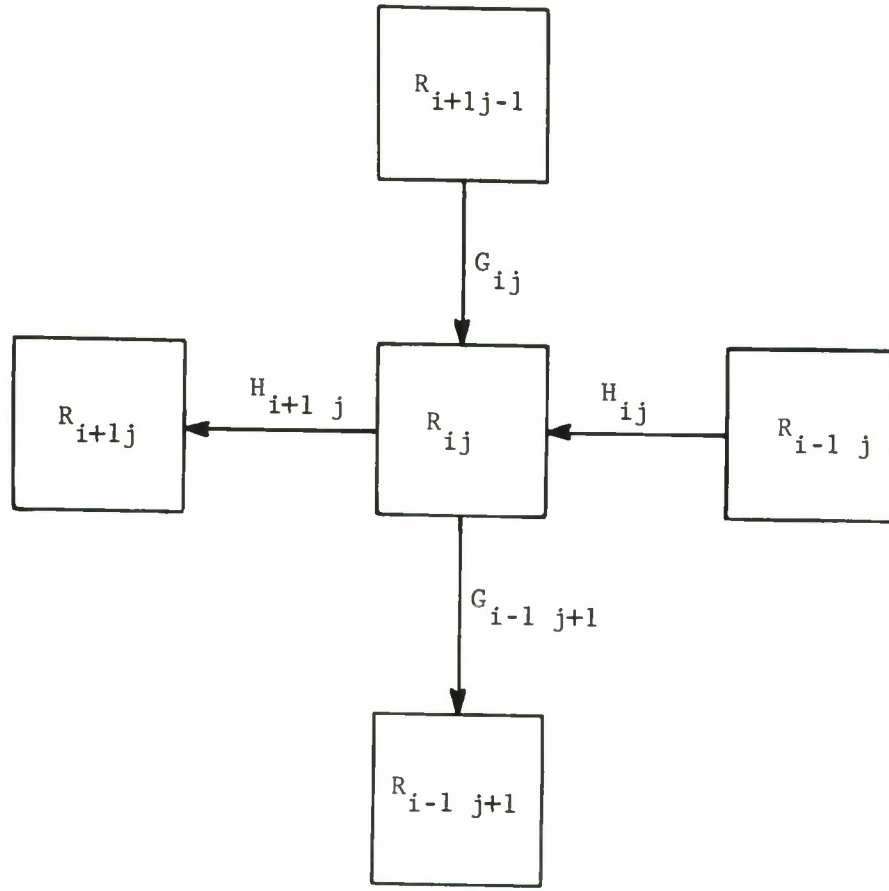


Figure 13 General Cell

ii) input from the upper box: G_{ij}

iii) input from the right box: H_{ij}

and two outputs:

i) adding $S_{1,3}$ gate to lower box:

$$G_{i-1j+1} = R_{ij} + G_{ij} + H_{ij} \pmod{2} \quad 31/2$$

ii) carrying $S_{2,3}$ gate to left box:

$$H_{i+1j} = G_{ij}H_{ij} + G_{ij}R_{ij} + H_{ij}R_{ij} \pmod{2} \quad 32/2$$

The first row of the first partial product has no input from above:

$$G_{i0} = 0 \quad 33/2$$

and no output to the left:

$$H_{i+1 \ 0} = 0 \quad 34/2$$

and further no input from right; however, this condition logically results from equations 30/2, 31/2, and 32/2:

$$\begin{aligned} H_{i0} &= G_{i-1 \ 0} H_{i-1 \ 0} + G_{i-1 \ 0} R_{i-1 \ 0} H_{i-1 \ 0} R_{i-1 \ 0} \\ &= 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot R_{i-1 \ 0} + 0 \cdot R_{i-1 \ 0} = 0 . \end{aligned} \quad 35/2$$

The first right skew column including the factor A_0 has no input from right

$$H_{0j} = 0 . \quad 36/2$$

The input of the first left skew column G_{Ij+1} comes from the adjacent skew upper right horizontal output:

$$G_{I \ j+1} = H_{I+1 \ j} . \quad 37/2$$

For $j = 0$, this means

$$G_{I \ 1} = H_{I+1 \ 0} = 0 \quad 38/2$$

by equation 31/2.

The first J digits P_0, P_1, \dots, P_J from the right of the product P is given by

$$P_j = G_{-1 \ j+1} ; \quad 39/2$$

further digits are given by

$$P_{i+J+1} = G_{iJ+1} . \quad 40/2$$

If Y is the time required to form the logical product R_{ij} from A_i and B_j and Z is the time required to form $G_{i-1, j+1}$ and $H_{i+1, j}$ from the inputs R_{ij} , G_{ij} and H_{ij} through a single cell of the matrix, the longest delay occurs in the series

$$H_{11}, H_{21}, H_{31}, H_{41}, G_{32}, H_{42}, H_{42}, G_{33}, H_{43}, G_{34}, H_{44}, H_{54}, \quad 41/2$$

hence the maximal delay U for the entire matrix is given by

$$U = Y + Z \{ (D-1) + 2(D-2) + 1 \} = Y + Z(3D-4) . \quad 42/2$$

The case $N = 3$ can be constructed by a similar circuitry, but with some additional gates shown by the small circles at the left end of each horizontal C_k plane in Figure 9. The factors of the same radix power appear in the same vertical diagonal planes in Figure 9:

$$R_{000} = A_0 B_0 C_0 ; R_{100} = A_1 B_0 C_0, R_{010} = A_0 B_1 C_0,$$

$$R_{001} = A_0 B_0 C_1, \dots, R_{444} = A_4 B_4 C_4 .$$

Because

$$I = J = K = 4$$

in this example, all of the A , B , and C are smaller than 2^5 ; hence the product P is smaller than $(2^5)^3 = 2^{15}$. Therefore, the maximal value of S in P is 14:

$$S \leq 3(I+1) - 1 = 14 .$$

SECTION V

CONCLUSION

The above process can be summarized as follows:

1. Simultaneous expression of each numeral in all places wherever it is used,
2. Mutual separation of the products of every pair or set of digits by removing the carryover process into the final adding step,
3. Utilization of the simple "diagonal" location of all the products of pairs or sets of digits of the same radix power, and
4. Simultaneous partial addition of the products to the quasi-term Q_t by the combinational circuits instead of the series operation of repeating the shift-and-add with carry operations of two partial products.

By assembling these geometrized arithmetic devices, any polynomial or Taylor series of finite terms can be realized in hardware, which will facilitate and expedite the numerical calculation of roots of algebraic equations.


Satio Okada

APPENDIX A

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14.

KEY WORDS

Analog Computers
Computer Logic
Coincident Current Memory Logic
Geometry of Numbers

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LINK B

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